All You
Wanted To Know About

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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ALL YOU WANTED TO KNOW ABOUT
English Grammar

SUMITA ROY

New Dawn

NEW DAWN
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Preface

In the age of electronic communication and knowledge explosion, the criterion for keeping oneself abreast is a swift and precise acquisition of data. Success depends on an individual's ability to march with the times — not only to be influenced by his/her milieu, but to be able to make some creative contribution to it.

The present set of books are an attempt by Sterling Publishers to help usher in the new millennium with adequate preparation. It is hoped that this user-friendly series will benefit all sincere readers who desire to use English as an effective tool of communication.

Introduction

Accuracy in the use of a language is dependent to a large extent on mastering the rules of grammar. The first step in learning these rules and putting them to practical use in real-life language situations is the ability to distinguish between correct English and its incorrect forms. Perfection in the language is gained through regular and repeated practice. The more varied the language situations to which the learner exposes himself/herself, the

better chance he/she has of improving his/her language.

Therefore, this volume is geared towards a functional approach, followed by a discussion of transformations because they give to the learner the ability to say the same thing in various ways — thus increasing the range of expression.

Part One : Functions

A study of grammar involves two aspects: rules governing the structure of language and its function. The former is determined by the appearance of words which is not always the most reliable of methods. Functional grammar looks at words in the context of sentences and determines its function. The rules of grammar are demonstrated practically in connected speech — both in speaking and writing. Here

the functions of words become evident and it is, therefore, best to classify words according to their functions as performed in sentences.

On the basis of functions, English words are divided into eight categories called parts of speech because they govern the manner in which language is to be spoken (and, by implication, written). A working knowledge of functions of grammar is very essential to users of English. The extent of this knowledge determines the mastery a person has over the language.

Of course, as with the other tools of language, grammar is best learnt through practice and not merely by a mechanical absorption of its rules. It is useless to know the definition of a noun and its appearance unless we know how to use it in a sentence or correct it if wrongly used. In short, it is the functional aspect of grammar, not merely its structure, that needs to be perfected before effective communication is achieved.

The following chapters deal with the various rules governing these functions.

NOUN

Words which function as tools for naming in English are called nouns. They name individuals — Mr Gupta, Anjana; groups or types of persons — crowd, child, farmer; — things — chair, tree, book; — specific places — India, Asia; — places in general — city, river; — emotions — anger, sorrow, love. A noun thus identifies all that is perceived, felt or imagined. Based on what is named nouns are divided into four types.

1. **Proper Noun** : Specific or particular names are included in this type such as names of persons : Subhadra; names of geographic locations: England; names of rivers, mountains: Ganges, Himalayas; names of celestial bodies : Jupiter, Mars; pets: Rover.

2. **Common Nouns** are names given in common without referring to any specific or identifiable individual, thing or place. They may be used for persons: girl; things: bed; places: village; animal: tiger.

3. **Collective Nouns** are words which indicate a group or class as a single entity: fleet for a group of ships; audience for a group of people at a performance; bunch for a group of sticks, etc., tied together.
4. **Abstract Noun** is usually the name of a quality, action, or state. Words included in this category are: poverty, honesty, idealism.

Exercise

Underline the nouns in the following sentences and specify the type:

1. Delhi is the capital of India.
2. Kishore lives in a house by the sea.
3. Sympathy is a noble emotion.
4. The committee decided to meet on Wednesday.
5. The monkey is the ancestor of man.

The Noun : Number

An important function of the noun is to indicate the quantity of the word named. A *singular noun*

denotes one person, place, animal or thing. When more than one of these is to be indicated, a *plural noun* is used. A singular noun is usually made into a plural

- by adding the suffix — s: door — doors; garden — gardens; plate — plates;
- by adding — es: box — boxes; bench — benches; watch — watches;
- by changing fe into v and adding — es:
  Knife — knives, wolf — wolves; life — lives;
- by adding en to the singular:
  Ox — oxen, child — children;

- by making a vowel change: man — men, formula — formulae;
- by retaining the same form: pants — pants; sheep — sheep.

Exercise

Change the number of the underlined nouns in the following sentences.

1. The wives waited for the men to return.
2. The table had [a] broken leg.
3. The lions acted as the kings of the forests.
4. The wolf chased the child.
5. The box may be near the shelf.

Nouns which can be differentiated in a singular and plural form are called *countable* nouns. Those nouns which cannot be counted in this way are called *uncountable*: water, hatred, furniture, help.

Exercise

Choose the correct forms of the nouns, in brackets, to complete the following sentences.

1. Everyone eats (breads/bread) for breakfast.
2. I am looking for some (information/informations).
3. The scenery/sceneries) in hill stations is beautiful.

4. We had (fish/fishes) for dinner.
5. There were many (people/peoples) at the shop.

Certain exceptions :

where the -s form has a difference of meaning:

Money - monies (money from different sources)
Fee - fees (fee under various heads)
Fish - fishes (fish of different variety)
Fruit - fruits (fruit of different variety)

Water -waters (water from different sources)

Nouns can also differentiate genders of the named words. There are four genders, *masculine* — for male nouns; *feminine* — for female nouns; and *neuter* — for nouns without differentiation; denotes a thing.

Masculine : Boy, peacock, actor, land-lord

Feminine : Girl, peahen, actress, land-lady.

Neuter : lock, key.

Those nouns which can be used to represent both masculine and

feminine forms are called *common gender*: cousin, child, teacher.

Exercise

Change the gender of the underlined nouns:

1. The Queen was accompanied by her ladies.
2. A bachelor lives here alone.
3. A fox caught a doe.
4. The mistress of the house has gone out
5. The tiger is in the cage.

The Noun : Case

Depending on the position of the noun in a sentence it is said to be in

the subject, object or possessive Case. The noun at the beginning of the sentence in front of the verb whose action it performs as the subject is called the *Nominative* Case: *English* is an interesting language. The noun at the end of the sentence which receives the action of the verb is its object, *Objective Accusative* Case. Indians live in *India*. A noun which indicates another as belonging to it, occurring with an apostrophe ('s) is called *Possessive* Case: This is *Deepak's* office.

Exercise

Determine the case of the underlined nouns in the following sentences

1. This author writes children's books.
2. The trees bore many fruits.
3. Jaya's cat is sleeping on the floor.

PRONOUN

Since nouns are difficult to use again and again, their repetition in a sentence or in consecutive sentences is to be avoided. In such places a **pronoun** is used to represent the function of the omitted noun. The pronoun which is used to replace a person/persons is called a *personal pronoun*. The following table lists the words which are used as personal pronouns.

	Subject		Object		Possessive	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	I	We	Me	us	My/mine	Our/our
2nd Person	You	You	You	You	Your/yours	Your/yours
3rd Person	He		Him		His/his	
	She	They	Her	Them	Her/hers	Their/theirs
	It		It		Its/its	

Exercise

Choose the correct pronoun to complete the following sentences:

1. (I/My) brother knows (it/its) better than (I/me).
2. (He/It) works in the factory in (it/its) legal department.
3. (She/we) have chosen dresses similar to (them/theirs).

Sometimes the above compound personal pronouns are used for the sake of emphasis, and are therefore called *emphasising pronouns*.

I — Myself, We— ourselves
You — Yourself, You— yourselves
He — Himself
She — Herself, They—themselves
It — Itself.

Example :

The chairman *himself* conducted the meeting.

Compound Personal Pronouns are called *reflexive* pronouns when the action done by the subject turns backs (reflects) upon the subject:
She killed herself

Exercise

Identify which of the underlined are emphasising and which are reflexive in the following sentences.

1. The document <u>itself</u> was missing.
2. They enjoyed <u>themselves</u>.
3. I <u>myself</u> think it is wrong.
4. You must ask <u>yourself</u> the question.
5. The boy hurt <u>himself</u> while playing.

Pronouns can also be used to refer or relate to some noun. Such a pronoun is called a *relative* pronoun: *The movie* which *is running here is new.*

The relative pronouns in English are:

For persons : Who (subject);
whom (object);
whose (possessive)

For things : Which/that (subject and object); whose (possessive)

Exercise

Join the following pairs of sentences using appropriate relative pronouns.

1. The car is new. It looks bright.
2. This is the man. I met him yesterday.
3. Be careful of this lake. Its depths are rocky.
4. I have a friend. Her house is in the village.
5. The student got a medal. He is the principal's son.

Relative pronouns should always be used immediately after

the noun which they relate to. Otherwise the sentence is incorrect.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences.

1. The injured were taken to hospital who were treated there.
2. The house needs repair whose roof is leaking.
3. He is the leader everyone admires whom.
4. My uncle is a doctor whose house I visited.
5. The treasure was stolen by a thief which was misplaced.

Pronouns can also refer to unspecified nouns and are then called *indefinite pronouns*: one, ones, anyone, someone, none everyone, everybody, nobody, somebody, anybody, anything, nothing, everything, something, etc.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with suitable indefinite pronouns.

1. _____can do such a simple exercise.
2. The locked house indicated that _____was at home.
3. I am sure_____has been following me for the last two hours.
4. My shoes are old; I must buy new _____.
5. Give her another pencil, the _____you gave earlier is lost.

Words which have been listed as relative pronouns above have

another function. They can be used to ask questions where the reply is a noun/pronoun. Such a word is called an *interrogative pronoun*: Whose *voice is louder?*

Exercise

Underline the pronouns in the following sentences and say what type of pronouns they are:

1. Who came here to take it?
2. Which of them is your choice?
3. Whom do they wish to meet?

The words 'this', 'that', 'these' and 'those' are called *demonstrative pronouns* because they show or

point out to the object to which they refer. The same words can also function as adjectives when they are used immediately before a noun. In case these four words perform the function of nouns — that is, act as subject or object of a sentence — they are called pronoun. *These* are huge mangoes. (pronoun): *These* mangoes grow here. (adjective)

Exercise

Say whether the underlined are pronoun or adjectives.

1. <u>These</u> mountains are very high.
2. I was looking for <u>that</u>.
3. <u>This</u> impressed him.
4. Please give me <u>that</u> bottle.
5. <u>Those</u> are the places you must visit.

ADJECTIVE

An adjective is a descriptive word used with the noun and which adds something to its meaning. An adjective can be used in two positions with relation to the noun it qualifies. An *attributive adjective* comes exactly before the noun it describes: A *black* cat is inauspicious; a *predicative adjective* is separated from the noun it qualifies by a verb: This man appears *sensible*.

Exercise

Underling the adjectives in the following sentences and say whether they are attributive or predicative.

1. He is fond of fast cars.
2. Dogs are very intelligent
3. A reputed firm is looking for managers.
4. The story sounds autobiographical.
5. You look tired.

There are six type of adjectives:

1. *Adjectives of Quality* shows the kind of quality of noun is being described (as

exemplified by the adjectives above): This is no *small* matter; she looks *pale*.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with suitable adjectives of quality:

The _____ president wanted to make _____ changes in the _____ rules. The _____ workers opposed his _____ decisions. Some _____ employees supported his _____ ideas. The president was _____ and accepted the support of the _____ workers to make _____ alterations.

Adjectives of quality have the capacity to qualify more than one individual or group of nouns. For such a purpose the different forms of adjectives needed are called *Degrees of Comparison*. There are three such degrees

a. When a single noun is qualified by an adjective, the *positive* degree is used: This material is *expensive*.
b. When two nouns or groups are compared with each other, the comparative degree is used: This material is *more expensive* than that one.

c. When the number of nouns or groups increases to three or more, the *superlative* degree is used. This is the most expensive material of all.

Formation of the degrees of comparison is based on the following rules:

i) addition of -er (comparative) and -est (superlative) to the positive.

Examples:

big — bigger — biggest
nice — nicer — nicest (one 'e' deleted)

happy—happier— happiest ('y' changed to 'i')

ii) addition of 'more' (comparative) and most (superlative) to the positive.

Examples :

intelligent — more intelligent — most intelligent

difficult — more difficult — most difficult.

iii) Changing the base adjective completely. When comparative and superlative are not formed

from the positive. It is an *Irregular* comparison.

Example :

good - better - best

bad - worse - worst

iv) Two forms for each

Examples :

far - farther - farthest

- further - furthest

old - older - oldest

- elder - eldest

Exercise

Use the correct degree of the adjectives in brackets to complete the following sentences:

1. He was elected to the — (high) position in the state.
2. The — (topical) issue attracted attention.
3. Crows are — (clever) than other birds.
4. The — (young) student of the class won the prize.
5. Your talk is — (relevant) than others.

2. The second category of adjectives are called *Adjectives of Quantity* which show how much of the noun is being spoken of. All numbers are adjectives of quantity: There are *four* phones here.
These are *definite* adjectives. Where the number is not exact, the adjective of quantity is *indefinite*. *Several* programmes on TV are educational. For indicating the quantity of countable nouns 'few' and 'many' are used; for uncountable nouns 'little' and 'much' are used: There were *many* people but *few* seats; There is *much* work and *little* time to do it

in. 'Little' and 'few' when used with 'a' or 'the' show increase in quantity: There were *few* people in the room.

(almost none)

There were a *few* people in the room. (some/sufficient)

The *few* people in the room were strangers. (entire quantity)

We have *little* time to spare.

(none at all)

We have a *little* time to space.

(some/enough)

The *little* time we had was wasted.

(all the available quantity)

A pair of adjectives of quantity commonly used in complementary

contexts are 'some' and 'any'. 'Some' is used in affirmative sentences while 'any' is used in negative and interrogative sentences: Please give me *some* money.

I do not have *any* money.

Do you have *any* letters for me?

Do you have *some* money?
(affirmative answer expected)

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with appropriate adjectives of quantity.

1. _____food is needed to feed so _____people.
2. Very_____citizens are aware of their responsibilities.
3. He made_____effort to improve his miserable existence.
4. I have to make a _____urgent calls now.
5. Is there_____water in the tank?

Exercise

Underline the possessives in the following sentences and say whether they are adjectives or pronouns.

1. Her resignation came according to their plan.
2. Ours is a secular county.
3. Your voice is more melodious than his.
4. Mine must be the blame for your injury.
5. The mother bird cares for its young till their wings become strong.

3. The next class of adjectives is called *possessive adjective*. (see table of personal pronouns: page 24). In English the following words function as possessive adjectives, though structurally they are derived from pronouns — my, our, your, his, her, its, their. These words are adjectives in function because in a sentence they come in front of a noun, exactly in the position of an attributive adjective:

My opinion differs from *yours*.
(Adjective) (Pronoun)

4. Another category of adjectives is called *distributive* because it shows that the noun named is to be taken singly or in separate groups: each, every, either, neither, etc.:

Each one of the two options seemed unacceptable.

Every student has to attend this lecture.

Either metal is suitable for our need.

Neither participants knew the rules of the game.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences

1. Every candidate are present in the hall.
2. Neither countries want peace.
3. Either book may not be read first.
4. Each of these exercises have to be written down.

5. *Interrogative adjectives* are used with nouns for questioning: *Which* dress will you wear? (the *blue* dress)

Exercise

Frame questions using interrogative adjective for the following sentences.

1. Hot weather is uncomfortable.
2. The town's news hasn't reached us.
3. The fair child looks pretty.

6. 'This' 'that' 'these' and 'those' function as *demonstrative adjectives* when they point out which person or thing is meant: *This* child is blind

Adjectives are sometimes formed by hyphenating two words. These are called *compound adjectives*:
He is the *one-eyed* merchant.
Get yourself a *three-legged* stool.

ARTICLE

An article is in many ways similar to an adjective in position: It comes before a noun like an attributive adjective does. But it cannot occur in the predicative position. There are two kinds of articles in English — *indefinite* : a, an; and *definite* : the. *The* vehicle met with *an* accident on *a* lonely road.

In English there is a concept called the Zero article. Nouns which usually need an article have some

exceptional uses where no article need be used.

Uses : The definite article is used:

1. before geographic names such as river, mountains, ranges, seas, oceans, groups of islands, gulfs : *The* Ganges originates in *the* Himalayas.
2. before a common noun which is only one of its kind or is unique:
   The moon revolves round *the* earth; *the* earth revolves round *the* sun.
3. as a specific pointer to a common noun : *The* book you want is out of print.

4. before proper nouns used as common nouns : Our language is *the* Italian of the East.
5. a noun which is the representative of its class : *The* cow is considered holy in India.
6. before a superlative adjective : He was *the* wisest of men.
7. when an adjective is used as a noun : *The* rich are not always happy.
8. before the names of scriptures : He has written a commentary on *the* Upanishads.
9. in front of names of musical instruments : She knows how

to play *the* piano and *the* violin.

10. in abbreviations: Many languages are taught at *the* CIEFL.
11. before comparatives in a parallel construction: *The* louder you shout, *the* greater will be the confusion.
12. before names of trains, ships, historical periods, monuments, etc. *The* Jaipur Express does not go upto *the* Jaisalmer fort. The indefinite article 'a' is used in front of nouns which are pronounced with a

consonant sound at the beginning whereas 'an' is used in front of vowel sound pronunciations: It took us *an* hour to select a university from the list.

Uses : An indefinite article is used

1. to denote one or any : She had *an* apple for lunch.
2. to imply the meaning of the word 'per' : This vehicle gives 30 kms *a* litre.
3. before a noun indicated as unspecified : Job opportunities in *a* city are numerous.

4. before 'little' and 'few' as discussed under adjectives of quantity. (see page 43)

No article is necessary

1. in front of a proper noun: Hari lives in Bangalore.
2. before titles: Meet captain Chopra, our guest of honour.
3. before uncountable nouns: Oil is precious.
4. before abstract nouns: Discipline is essential in life.
5. before plurals used in a general sense: Snakes are often poisonous.

6. before names of branches of learning: Economics is a vital subject in their curriculum.
7. before common nouns used for their primary purpose: The injured were taken to hospital for treatment.
8. before geographical names of particulars: Mount Everest is covered with snow.
9. before days, months, season: summer is most intense in May.
10. before names of games: We enjoy playing badminton.
11. in some idiomatic expressions: We travel by train. He teases others for pleasure.

Exercise

Use articles where necessary.

1. This is _____ map of one of _____largest countries_____ Asia.
2. I have_____friend living on_____island in_____Pacific.
3. _____people go to _____ lunch on_____Sunday.
4. _____union leader who refused to disclose his identity gave_____statement to_____Press.
5. _____boy who plays_____ sitar very well is not good at playing_____baseball.

VERB

A verb is a very important part of a sentence. No sentence in English is complete without a verb. Verbs include words that show the state or existence of a noun, or its action: This lesson *is* complete.

She *wrote* the exercises.

Verbs are used to make statements, or requests, to give commands or to ask questions.

Examples:

Seasons *change* every three months. (statement)

Clean the vessels properly.

(command)

Please *help* me. (request)

Is this your note book? (question)

Verbs which are incomplete without an object — that is, verbs that denote actions which passes over from the doer or subject to an object are called *Transitive verbs*. Those verbs which express a state or being are called *Intransitive verbs*: He *lost* his purse. (transitive)

She *played* well. (intransitive)

Exercise

Underline the verbs in the following sentences and say whether they are transitive or intransitive:

1. He surprised his parents.
2. We slept soundly.
3. Fish swim in water.
4. They sat in the shade.
5. I accept your offer.

Some transitive verbs can have two objects: direct (answering what) and indirect (answering whom)

Example :

She gave her *friend* (indirect) a *present* (direct)

Verbs exist in a *root* form called as the *infinitive.*

Examples : to sit, to play, to swim, to sleep. From this root all other forms of the verb are derived.

to eat (infinitive)			
eat	ate	eating	eaten
(present tense)	(past tense)	(present participle)	(past participle)

Based on the formation of the past tense and past participle forms, verbs are divided into two categories : *regular and irregular*. A

regular verb is that which has the same form for both past tense and past participle and it is derived by adding '-ed' to the base infinitive. Verb which does not follow this patterns are *irregular verbs.*

Examples :

walk — walked — walking — walked (regular)

read — read — reading — read (irregular)

Exercise

I. Identify the regular and irregular verbs in the following list.

Work; run; go; do; play; cry; sing; come; show; tell; lose; find; give; begin; study; stand; sing; fly; seek; sleep; lie; hang; swim; sit; accept; enjoy; move; open; boil; take; depend; play; write; argue; catch; flow; see; know; ring; waste; visit convey; indicate; close; hear; smell; think; acquire, forget, organise.

II. Write the root forms and four derivatives of each as given in the chart above (for the verb 'eat')

The above verbs are *lexical* or main verbs which are used to denote action. Another category of verbs used as helping verbs to indicate state or mood are called *auxiliary verbs*. Auxiliary verbs are of two types :

Primary : to be, to have, to do

Modal : can, could, may, might, will, shall, would, should, must, used, ought, need, dare.

Modal verbs do not have any other derivative forms except the ones given above.

The primary auxiliary verbs have the following derivative forms

to be	to have	to do
am	has	do
is	have	does
are	had	did
was		doing
were	having	
		done
being	had	
been		

TO BE is used to show the state, quality or existence of a noun.

Examples : This *is* a verb.

I *am* a doctor.

It *was* very late.

TO HAVE shows possession.

Examples : He *has* a horse.

We *have* a radio.

Both 'be' and 'have' are used to indicate the various aspects of tenses which will be discussed later.

TO DO is used for emphasising, negating and interrogating lexical verbs.

Examples :

He *does* know the answer.

He *does not* know anything.

Does he know you are coming?

CAN is used to show ability : I *can* climb a tree.
COULD is used for past ability : He *could* walk fast when he was young.
or for making a polite request : *Could* you pass the salt?
MAY is used for possibility :
It *may* rain.
or for permission.
May I leave the room?
MIGHT indicates remote possibility : We *might* be late.
WILL and SHALL are used for indicating future tense of lexical verbs : will for 2nd and 3rd persons; shall for 1st person.

Inverting this order changes the mood to compulsion, promise, etc.

Examples : I *shall* work hard (future). I *will* write to you (commitment)

He *will learn* the lesson (future). You *shall* do the work (compulsion).

WOULD is used as past of will/ shall :

He said he *would* work hard and for polite requests : *Would* you like to buy this product?

SHOULD is used for giving advice: You *should* cut your hair.

MUST is also used for giving advice, but it is more compulsive

than 'should' : *They must* pay their dues before the end of this month.

USED indicates past habit and is always followed by the 'to infinitive' of the lexical verb and not the 'base infinitive' as in the above modal verbs : She *used* to live here five years ago.

OUGHT is used to make a suggestion : This building *ought* to be demolished.

NEED is used for indicating necessity : You need not worry about anything.

DARE is used for inescapability : I *dare* say you are right. 'Need' and 'dare' are also used as lexical verbs.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with correct modal verbs according to the instructions given in brackets.

1. She_____sing better now than she_____before. (ability; past ability)
2. You_____open the packet. (permission)
3. He_____return before dark. (emphatic advice)
4. It_____be completed by tomorrow. (future)
5. _____it be right to keep it a secret from him? (past of 'will')

Auxiliary verbs have the following negative forms.

am - am not; is - is not, isn't; are - are not, aren't; was - was not, wasn't; were - were not, weren't; will; will not - won't; shall — shall not, shan't; can - cannot, can't; could - could not, couldn't; may - may not, mayn't; might - might not, mightn't; should - should not, shouldn't; must - must not, musn't; would - would not, wouldn't; need - need not, needn't; ought - ought not, oughtn't; dare - dare not, daren't.

The contracted forms above are only used in informal contexts.

The time of a verb's action or an event is indicated by *tense*. English language has three tenses — present, past and future — derived from the verb as indicated in the chart for verb 'to eat' on page 64. The future tense derived by adding 'will' or 'shall' to the infinitive as indicated above. Tenses are further subdivided into aspects. *Simple* or *indefinite; continuous* for action over a period of time; perfect for completed action; and *perfect continuous* for continuous action which visualises completion. The rules for formation of these are given in the table below.

Simple/Indefinite		Continuous	Perfect	Perfect Continuous
Rule	Derived from root	to be + V + ing (present participating)	to have + V (past participle)	to have + to be + V (Past participle)
Present	Eat (s)	am / is / are + eating	has / have + eaten	has / have + been eating
Past	Ate	was / were + eating	had + eaten	had + been eating
Future	will / shall + eat	will be / shall be + eating	will have / shall have + eaten	will have / shall have + been eating

Exercise

Make a table similar to the one above for each of the 50 verbs given in the exercise on transitive and intransitive verbs (page 66).

The use of each of the above forms is given below:

Simple Present is used for present action: Here *comes* the sun; habit: We *get* up at five o'clock; universal truths: The earth *revolves* round the sun; future plan: college *closes* for vacation next week. *Present continuous* is used for an action going on at

present. We *are waiting* for her; or in the near future: She is *leaving* soon. Some verbs which are not used in the continuous forms are verbs using the sense organs: see, hear, smell, taste; verbs of mental states : think, desire, wish; verbs of possession: have, belong, own.

Present Perfect is used for action already completed at the time of speaking : *She has finished* cooking; a present action linked with the past; we *have lived* here since 1985.

Present Perfect Continuous indicates an action which has

begun in the past and continues through the present, to be completed in future: We *have been learning* English for five years.

Simple past indicates a past action, specially with mention of time in the past : He *celebrated* his birthday last Friday.

Past Continuous indicates a past action which occurred over a period of time : She *was walking* past the building at the time of the explosion.

Past Perfect is an action completed in the distant past or before

another action, indicated by simple past: They *had eaten* by the time he arrived.

Past Perfect Continuous speaks of a continuous action in the past continued up to that time, often interrupted before completion: He *had been working* in the mines when he was hurt.

Simple Future is used for a future action: We *shall have* lunch soon, or present plan: She *will try* again.

Future Continuous is an action which is seen continuing in the future. He *will be travelling* by this flight.

Future Perfect indicates an action likely to be completed in the future. She *will have received* her degree by this time next year.

Future Perfect Continuous indicates an action represented as being in progress over a period of time that will end in the future. By next month, we *shall have been studying* English for one year.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs given in brackets.

1. I_____(tell) you the news when we meet next week
2. He_____(write) a letter now.
3. The bus_____(leave) by the time she_____(reach) the bus stop.
4. When he_____(stand) on the balcony it_____(start) raining
5. Everyone_____(admire) him for his courage.

Verbs in the (*simple*) present tense have two forms : infinitive with

singular nouns and infinitive + s with plural nouns. Agreement of verb and noun (subject) is called *concord.*

Example : He *is* our teacher; he *teaches* us English.

They *are* our friends; they *play* with us.

Exercise

Correct the following sentences:

1. The father, as well as the sons, were miserly.
2. Neither his brother nor his sister know the address.
3. A film and a battery needed for the camera.
4. One dozen eggs appear a large quantity.
5. The solution to these problems are not far to seek.

Verbs which work as action words in a sentence, as explained in the above sections, are called *finite* verbs. But verb forms such as the

present and past participles and infinitive can be used in a sentence to carry out the function of a noun or an adjective. Such verbs which have verb-structures but other functions are called *non-finite* verbs. There are three forms of non-finite usage in English : the present participle (v+ing) used as a noun is called *Gerund* : *Walking* is a good exercise; the past/present *participle* used as an adjective is called *Participle*. These are his *reading* glasses; she threw away the *broken* pen; the *infinitive* can be used both as a noun and as an adjective : She loves *to sing*.

(noun); We must try *to win* the game. (adjective)

Exercise

Underline the verbs in the following sentences and say whether they are finite or non-finite:

1. She prefers swimming to rowing.
2. To come first is his ambition.
3. We have heard a singing bird in the forest.
4. He wants to eat rice.
5. You have bought only frozen food.

When the finite verb indicates an action of the subject, the verb is said to be in the *active voice*. In the *passive voice* subject does something or has something done to it. Intransitive verbs do not have passive forms.

Examples :

The car *hit* a tree. (active)

A tree *was hit* by the car. (passive)

The rule for changing verbs from the active to the passive form is: to be (in the tense/aspect form) + V (past participle) as shown in the table below : ('to eat' as in the chart on page 76)

	Simple	Continuous	Perfect
Present	am / is / are + eaten	am / is / are + being eaten	have / has + been eaten
Past	was / were + eaten	was / were + being eaten	had + been eaten
Future	will be / shall be + eaten	—	will / shall + have been eaten

Exercise

Make a table similar to the one above (passive forms) for each of the transitive verbs listed in the exercise on transitive and intransitive verbs on page 66.

ADVERB

An adverb has three functions; it can modify a verb: She sings *melodiously;* it can modify an adjective : He felt *deeply* humiliated; it can modify another adverb: The battle was fought *very* furiously.

Most of the adverbs are derived by adding -ly to an adjective: An intelligent speaker is bound to speak *intelligently.* Some exceptions to this are: never,

always, often, very, quite, rather, fast, hard, soon, well, etc.

There are various types of adverbs classified according to their function.

1. *Adverbs of time* show <u>when</u> the action took place : She came *yesterday.*
2. *Adverbs of place* show <u>where</u> the action took place: God is present *everywhere.*
3. *Adverbs of Manner* show <u>how</u> or <u>in</u> what manners the action took place: He studies *diligently.*
4. *Adverbs of Degree* show <u>how</u> <u>much</u> the word being modified

is to be altered : She is *very* beautiful.

5. *Adverbs of frequency* show <u>how often</u> an action took place He is seen here *frequently*. We *always* come on time.

<u>Exercise</u>

Underline the adverbs and classify them:

1. We climbed the steep slope slowly.
2. The clouds appeared very dark.
3. Do the work now.
4. She often comes late.
5. Put the parcels there.

Adverbs generally come after the verb. But adverbs of frequency and negatives are placed before the verb: They *never* want to come back.

If a sentence has more than one adverb the order of placement is ṭime, manner, place : *Everyday* she works *continuously* for four hours *here.*

Instead of single word adverbs, sometimes a phrase is used to function as an adverb. This is called an *adverbial phrase*: Children go to school *in the morning.* (time).

Exercise

Correct the following sentences.

1. I immediately wrote a reply to the letter.
2. Always he comes to us at the weekends.
3. The matter is too much important.
4. While walking, they saw a ship on the beach.

PREPOSITION

A preposition is used to add a noun or pronoun to a sentence. Its position is in front of the noun/ pronoun it connects to the sentence. It shows the relationship of this noun to the rest of the sentence.

Example : The meeting was held *in* the conference room.

Exercise

Use the prepositions — on, at, to, of, into — to fill in the blanks:

1. He is waiting for you_____the bus stop.
2. The course begins ___Monday.
3. Some of the waste gases escaped_____the air.
4. A few parts_____this machine are new.
5. You must go_____the post office tomorrow.

In each of the above sentences the prepositions is governed by the noun it connects to the sentence.

When nouns of time, place or position are connected with the help of prepositions to a sentence the preposition is governed by these nouns.

Examples : 'at' for time which is specified : Meet me *at* six.

'at' for place : He works *at* the passport office.

'at' for position : She stood *at* the door.

'on' for time, particular day, etc. I visited him *on* his birthday.

'on' for position : There is a garden *on* the roof.

'in' for time, especially a period : The wedding is *in* January.

'in' for place : Natural resources are plentiful *in* this country.

'in' for position : Valuable documents are *in* the locker.

'from' and 'to' for movement of place : He walked *from* the main road *to* his friend's house.

'beside' for position : His house is *beside* the police station.

Sometimes nouns, adjectives or verbs which come in front of the preposition determine what preposition should be used. There

is no clear guideline for this and creates much confusion for learners. The best way to learn these is by practice.

Examples :

OF : Do not avail *of* your leave during the peak season.

· The convict was accused *of* many crimes.

We suspected him *of* cheating.

If you work so hard, you will die *of* exhaustion.

TO : We were invited *to* a concert.

He objected *to* the opponents' agreement.

The matter was subjected *to* discussion.

The lost child was entrusted to the police.

AT : Everyone laughed *at* his antics.
You must aim *at* excellence.
He looked *at* the sunset.
She grumbles *at* her family everyday.

ON : I congratulate you *on* your graduation.
The old man depends *on* his stick for support.
She insisted *on* cooking for everyone.
He bestowed all his wealth *on* his adopted child.

IN : She must confide *in* someone.
That shopkeeper deals *in* stolen goods.

If you save now, you can live *in* comfort later.

For : He works *for* his uncle.
I have been looking *for* you.
After a long day, the workers long *for* rest.
What are you searching *for*?

WITH : He was entrusted *with* a tough job.
Everyone sympathised *with* the unfortunate victim.
You must deal *with* him very strictly.
Do not interfere *with* his plans.

FROM : Trespassers are prohibited *from* entering this land.
She is recovering *from* a serious illness.

Are you suffering *from* malaria?

I differ *from* you in this matter.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions :

1. The people_____the car hoped_____arrive_____the hotel___four O′ clock.
2. He sat_____his desk_____an executive chair and wrote a letter____his officer.
3. He was born_____Delhi____ Saturday, the first _____ May.

4. I shall meet you_____ dinner_____Thursday_____the evening____his house.
5. ____the weekends we can be found_____the seaside enjoying the freedom____the beach.
6. We could not complain___him although he presided_____the function very badly.
7. To get____the interview you must first comply____all the instructions given here.

8. When all the dealers furnish us _____their details we shall try to push the deal_____.
9. He boasted_____his quarrel_____ his neighbour.
10. I must remind you_____your promise about not believing _____him so completely.

CONJUNCTION

Words which join other words, phrases, clauses or sentences are called conjunctions.

Examples :

I know English *and* French.
(words)

He worked in the morning *and* at night.
(phrases)

They arrived on sunday *and* left on Tuesday
(clauses)

It was late *and* we were worried.

(sentences)

Conjunctions are divided into three categories according to their functions.

1. When two units of equal importance are joined, the conjunction used is called *coordinating* : He is poor *but* happy.

Common coordinating conjuctions in English are : and, but, or, nor, so, for, still, yet, otherwise, neither, as well as, etc.

Exercise

Make two sentences with each of the above conjunctions and say what they join in a coordinate relationship.

2. The second category is of *correlating* conjunctions.

These are usually used in pairs:

She disclosed *neither* the contents of the letter *nor* the reason for the sorrow.

Some of the conjunctions in this category are :

either ... or; neither ... nor; not only ... but also; whether ... or; so ... that ; so ... as; such ... that; both ... and.

Exercise

Make two sentences with each of the above pairs of conjunctions and identify the elements being joined.

3. The third category is called *subordinating* conjunctions because they join elements by creating a relationship of dependence : I cannot say *when* I'll be back. The following is a list of subordinating conjunctions used in English.

as; because; after; before; although; as if; as long as; as though; as soon

as; how; in case, if, lest, since, so that, than, through, while, why, that, till, until, unless, when, where who, what, which, whose, whom, whenever, wherever, whether, while, etc.

Exercise

Make one sentence with each of the above subordinating conjunctions and explain the relationship of dependence created by the conjunctions used.

Often the category of conjunction used can change without altering the structure of the sentence.

Examples :

It was raining *and* he took shelter under a tree.

As it was raining, he took shelter under a tree.

The change is merely from an equal or coordinate relationship in the first sentence to a dependent or subordinating relationship in the second one.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with appropriate conjunctions.

1. There was great relief____the war was over.
2. I learnt_____there are some vacancies in this firm.
3. He is young____enthusiastic.
4. _____he is poor, he helps others.
5. He was _____ late _____ unprepared.
6. We have decided to go alone _____you are in a hurry to leave.

7. You may have_____rice_____ bread.
8. The question was,_____to meet the challenge.
9. Please tell the police____you know.
10. The lights were switched off _____everyone left the premises.

INTERJECTION

A word most often used at the beginning of a sentence to express emotion is an interjection.

Examples :

Alas, he has failed again ! (sadness)

Some of the commonly used interjections in English are : Oh (surprise); hurray (joy); yippee (excitement); hey (to attract attention); ouch (pain); ugh (disgust).

Exercise

Use the interjections listed above in sentences of your own in order to illustrate their usage.

In spoken forms, oaths or swearing are also forms of interjection. They are not very commonly used except by native speakers of English. Some of these are : Lord, Oh dear, Dear me, Good Lord, My God, By Jove, Good heavens, Damn, etc.

Part Two : Transformations

In a rich and dynamic language such as English, it is not sufficient to have undimensional rules governing grammatic structures. The need for variety in expression is paramount. To be able to express the same idea in more than one way, that is, to have more than one grammatical structure for a single semantic unit is an important skill which helps attain mastery over the language. Transformations are

the numerous possibilities in this direction.

The art of saying the same sentence(s) in a different form(s) without any change of meaning or the minimum possible change — is the principle which governs all transformation of sentences.

The various rules of transformation available in English are put under separate heads in order to facilitate learning. For the best benefit more practice than is possible in the scope of such a small book is to be undertaken. The more a learner

practices the exercises of transformation, the more efficient and varied will his/her expression become. Similarity in any context brings the boredom or monotony and language is no exception to this rule. For those who want to use language with the maximum effect, the nature and varieties of transformations are invaluable.

SENTENCE

By definition, a sentence in English is the smallest individual unit of connected speech which makes complete sense. A group of words can either be a phrase : *on the slopes of a mountain;* a clause: *because it needs attention;* or a *sentence.*

A *phrase* is that group of words which is incomplete and has no finite verb.

A *clause* is also incomplete but it differs from a phrase in having at least one finite verb.

A *sentence* is a group of words which is complete in all respects and, like a clause, has one or more finite verbs: Tribal art is sometimes unique and much appreciated by those who have the good fortune to see some specimens of it.

Exercise

In the sentences given below, identify whether the underlined are phrases or clauses.

1. Tradition is the product of ages of conscious effort by its custodians.
2. Riding along like this reminded her of the time when she was in her native land.
3. Write a summary of the passage in your own words so as to simplify it and explain its meaning.

Sentences can be categorised into four types according to the function they carry out.

1. A sentence which states a fact is an *assertive* or *affirmative* sentence : Our neighbours have two children.
2. A sentence which contains 'no' or 'not' is a *negative* sentence : He did not know where she had gone.
3. A sentence which asks a question is an *interrogative* sentence : What is the colour of the moon?
4. A sentence which expresses surprise, wonder, awe or any other strong emotion is an *exclamatory* sentence : How exotic this place is!

Exercise

Write 5 examples for each of the four types of sentences given above.

An affirmative sentences can be changed into a negative one by using 'not'. If the sentence has an auxiliary verb the negative form of the verb is used. Otherwise, the helping verb 'to do' is used to make the sentence negative: He was a prisoner; he wanted to be set free. He was not (wasn't - informal) a prisoner; he did not want to be set free.

Exercise

Change the assertive sentences into negative and vice versa:

1. Students complained about language work.
2. She insists that she is young.
3. They had searched for the heirloom.
4. I check my pockets regularly.
5. A man was standing in the dark lane.
6. She cannot stand straight now.
7. The old lady did not possess any money.
8. You must not think of the problem.
9. We do not believe your story.
10. He will not find out the truth.

To change an affirmative or negative sentence into a question the order of words has to be altered. There are three types of questions:

1. Those formed by the use of question words : *What* is your name?
2. Those formed by using auxiliary verbs : *Are* you Preeti?
3. Tag questions which have a statement followed by a tag in the form of a question which is opposite to the statement's content: The style is impersonal, isn't it?

Exercise

I. Frame questions using interrogatives:

1. He was startled by her appearance.
2. She glanced at the room briefly.
3. They looked quite happy.
4. In the eyes of God, all are equal.
5. We met them for supper.

II. Frame questions with auxiliary verbs.

1. She was upto some mischief
2. He had poured oil on troubled waters before.

3. She would understand the significance.
4. You should do as you are told.
5. Everyone was relaxed.

III Frame tag questions:

1. He took up another case.
2. You haven't told me the truth.
3. He wouldn't mind helping us.
4. The account was closed.
5. The person who was appointed did his job well.

Assertive sentences can be transformed into exclamatory sentences by using an initial 'how' or 'what' followed by the adjective,

the subject and putting the finite verb in the final position, followed by the object, if any: She looked at him suspiciously (assertive)
How suspiciously she looked at him! (exclamatory)
This is a huge river.
What a huge river this is!

Exercise

Change the following to exclamatory sentences

1. You look tired.
2. I heard a funny story.
3. You are a fool.
4. People cheated him easily.
5. We had a wonderful time.

There are seven basic structures for assertive sentences, according to the type of finite verb it contains — intransitive, transitive or ditransitive.

1.	Subject	+ Verb (intransitive)			[SV]
	This place S	stinks, V(intr)			
2.	Subject	+ Verb (intransitive)	+ Adverbial		[SVA]
	The guests S	+ came V (inter)	+ to the party A (inter).		
3.	Subject	+ Verb (transitive)	+ Object		[SVO]
	She S	accepted V (tr)	the blame O		
4.	Subject	+ Verb (ditransitive)	+ Object (Indirect)	+ Object (Direct)	[SVOO]
	Her Parents S	gave V(dtr)	her O(I)	a good life O (D)	

5.	Subject	+	Verb (transitive)	+	object	+	Adverbial	[SVOA]
	The employees		should discuss		the rules		with the boss	
	S		V(tr)		O		A	
6.	Subject	+	Verb	+	Complement			[SVC]
	The leader		became		famous			
	S		V		C			
7.	Subject	+	Verb	+	Object	+	Complement	[SVOC]
	We		want		the car		repaired	
	S		V		O		C	

Exercise

I. Write five sentences illustrating each of the above seven structures.

II. Label the following sentences as shown above (S, V, O, C, A)

1. The officer approached the law.
2. He objected strongly to child labour.
3. He gave her the message.
4. The density of traffic is high.
5. All these factors affect performance.

Sentences can also be classified as simple, compound and complex

depending on the presence of the number of clauses and the relationship of these in a sentence.

A *simple sentence* is that which has a single finite verb. Since the number of finite verbs determine the number of clauses, a simple sentence has a single clause. It may have one or more phrase(s) and non-finite verbs: The design was perfected before introducing the product.

A *compound sentence* is one which has at least two or more finite verbs and, therefore, two or more clauses. The clauses are connected with the

help of a coordinating conjunction. In effect, a compound sentence is one where the relationship of the clauses is equal and independent of each other as far as meaning is concerned: It is hot and we feel uncomfortable.

A *complex sentence* also has two or more finite verbs and two or more clauses, like a compound sentence. But the relationship of the clauses is not independent as in a compound sentence. The clauses in a complex sentence are joined by a subordinating conjunction and, therefore, have a relationship of dependence: We felt

uncomfortable because it was hot.
In sentences which have three clauses or more it is possible to have one coordinating and one subordinating conjunction. Then the sentence is called *complex-compound* or *compound-complex* depending on which conjunction comes first: Although the last date was over, the Registrar accepted the form and inserted it in the correct file.

(complex-compound)

The maid took a broom and swept the floor since there was much dust there. (compound-complex)

Exercise

I. Change the following compound sentences into complex sentences

1. He is lazy, yet gets good marks.
2. You must come, otherwise you will be punished.
3. She continued to work, for it had to be finished soon.
4. He participated in the competition reluctantly but got a prize.
5. The sky was overcast and it started raining.

II. Change the following complex sentences into compound sentences.

1. He called out loudly because he was frightened.
2. Although he met his ex-wife, he refused to speak to her.
3. Unless you work hard you will fail.
4. She came to the party though she was not invited.
5. As he was asked to sing he did.

To change a simple sentence to a complex/compound one a finite verb (and a clause) have to be added together with a conjunction:

Seeing the guard, the thief escaped. (simple)

The thief saw the guard and escaped. (compound)

The thief escaped when he saw the guard. (complex)

Exercise

Change the following simple sentences into complex and compound forms.

1. While walking here, he found a hundred rupee note.
2. He must apologise to escape punishment.
3. Opening the dictionary, he checked the word.

Two simple sentences can be combined to form one simple sentence or a compound or a complex sentence. In the first case, the finite verb in one of the two sentences should be changed to a

non-finite form while in the last two appropriate conjunctions should be used to join the sentences: He works for his uncle. I like it. (single)

I like his working for his uncle. (simple)

He works for his uncle and I like this. (compound)

I like the fact that he works for his uncle. (complex)

Exercise

Join the following pairs of sentences into a one simple sentence.

1. He heard the news. He fell down unconscious.
2. I invite you. Please participate in our celebration.
3. It snowed hard. It showed no sign of stopping.
4. He thought the sound was strange. He went to check it.
5. The man was badly wounded. He was rushed to hospital

REPORTED SPEECH

When reproducing the speech of others, English offers two choices : (1) when the exact words of the speaker are given within inverted commas and the speaker is identified by a noun/pronoun outside the inverted commas, the form used is called *Direct speech*; (2) when the words are given indirectly more from the reporter's point of view, the form used is called *Reported Speech*. The use of direct speech is mostly in narration

- story telling, fiction, dialogue, conversation, etc. Reported speech is found in official reports, newspapers reports, text books, etc.: The leader said, "My country is more important to me than personal matters." (direct speech) The leader said that his/her country was more important to him/her than personal matters.

(reported speech)

The name of the speaker(s) together with the verb needed by this subject are called as the *reporting clause* while the speaker's words, given within

inverted commas in direct speech, is the *reported clause.*

The rules for transformation from direct speech to reported speech are as follows:

1. When the verb in the reporting clause is in the present tense (direct speech) all verbs in the reported speech sentence should be in the present tense. When it is in the past tense, the tense of the finite verb in the reported clause should be changed to the past tense. He says, "I know it."/He says that he knows it.

2. Pronouns in the reported clause which are in the first or second person forms should be changed to their corresponding third person forms. She said, "I am sorry."/She said that she was sorry.
3. If the reported clause has words or phrases indicating proximity of time/place these need to be changed to words indicating distance for the corresponding time/place forms:

The chairman said, "These issues are open for discussion tomorrow."

The chairman said that those issues were open for discussion the next day.

4. In case the present tense verb in the reported clause refers to a general statement of fact or universal truth it is not changed to its past tense form even when the reporting clause is in the past tense: The teacher said, "Seasons are caused by the revolution of the earth round the sun."

The teacher explained that seasons are caused by the revolution of the earth round the sun.

5. In the case of an assertive sentence, the reporting and the reported clause are joined with the help of the conjunction 'that': "You are right," he said. He said that I was right. (Note : 2nd person pronouns 'you' changes to 1st person 'I' in reported speech).

6. In case the reported clause is an interrogative and begins with a question word no conjunction is required in the reported speech forms: "What does he want?" she said. She asked what he wanted.

(Note : the verb 'said' in the reporting clause changes to the 'asked' in the reported clause).

7. The interrogative sentence in the reported clause changes its structure to form a statement in the reported speech form: The publishers said, "What is the book about?" The publisher asked what the book was about.
8. Where the interrogative form in the reported clause begins with an auxiliary verb instead of a question word, the

conjunction whether/if is used for joining the two clauses in the reported speech form: "Do you want the truth?" he said.
He asked whether I wanted the truth.

9. The reported clause may be in the form of a request, but in transformation this form, too, is reduced to its basic structure of a statement, that is, subject and then verb: He told his friend, "Please go away."
He requested his friend to go away.

10. Similarly, the structures of exclamatory sentences are also changed to the subject verb pattern in reported speech: "What an exciting programme!" everyone said. Everyone exclaimed/remarked that it was an exciting programme.

11. Short replies in dialogues are not exactly reproduced in transformation. Some standard forms specified are to be used in reported speech forms: Rashmi : Do you have a few minutes to spare.

Kajol : Yes, I do.
Rashmi : Would you like to have some tea.
Kajol : No, thank you.

Rashmi asked Kajol whether she had a few minutes to spare. Kajol replied in the affirmative (OR Kajol said that she did). Then Rashmi asked her whether she would like to have some tea. Kajol refused politely (OR Kajol thanked her and declined the offer, etc.)

Exercise

I. Change the following to Reported Speech.

1. Ravi said to Mukul, "I shall be leaving town tomorrow."
2. "How do you travel in such crowded buses?" he said.
3. The boss asked, "Are you ill?"
   The clerk replied, "No, Sir. I am fine."
4. "Please close the door after you enter," said the speaker.
5. "How kind providence really is!" she said.

II. Change the following to Direct Speech.

1. The king asked his subjects why were they unhappy.
2. Rajiv told Ratna that she was a good girl.
3. The teacher asked the students whether they knew how to use a dictionary.
4. Babu said that he was disappointed with the results. Chandan agreed with him.
5. The tourist remarked that the weather was terribly hot.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

As discussed in the chapter on verbs in Part One, a finite verb which is transitive has two voices. When the subject of the sentence is the performer of the action of the verb the voice of the sentence is said to be *Active*: The tea *needs* some sugar.

When the subject of the sentence is acted upon by the verb the voice of the sentence is *Passive* : Results will be declared soon.

It is obvious from the above examples that change in voice changes the orientation of a sentence. In the active form, the sentence is subject oriented while in the passive form it is object oriented.

Some guidelines for transformation are as follows.

1. The active verb changes to the passive form without any alteration of tense or aspect:
   Mini is reading the letter.
   The letter is being read by Mini.

Mini has read the letter.
The letter has been read by Mini.

2. In the passive form the subject of the active sentence is put in the object position and introduced by the preposition 'by': He loves apples.
Apples are loved by him.

3. In active forms where the subject is non-specified or general, it is usually omitted when transformed into the passive voice:
Everyone praised his effort.
His effort was praised.

Exercise

I. Transform the following into Passive Voice.

1. Someone predicted his future rightly.
2. They called him a great man.
3. He paints portraits.
4. The Vice Chancellor will address the meeting.
5. The delegation has met the president.

II Transform the following into Active Voice.

1. Elections have been rescheduled.

2. The shops are closed today.
3. The letter is being typed by the secretary.
4. The correct information was given to him by a stranger.
5. English is spoken in many parts of the world.

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

The adjective in English has three *degrees of comparison* — positive, comparative and superlative — as discussed in the chapter on adjectives in Part One. In transformation, we shall note how the same sentence can be expressed in three forms without much alteration in the meaning:

[S] This is the *tallest* building in our locality.

[C] This is *taller* than other buildings in our locality.

[P] In our locality no other building is as *tall* as this one.

Some of the rules of transformation are as follows.

1. The comparative and superlative of one or two syllable adjectives are formed by adding -er and -est. For three or more syllable adjectives, 'more' and 'most' are needed.

[S] Delhi is one of the *most beautiful* cities in India.

[C] Delhi is *more beautiful* than [most] other cities in India.

[P] Very few cities in India are as *beautiful* as Delhi.

2. The positive degree uses the form 'as...as' and also to lower the degree words such as 'no other' 'very few', etc. are used.

Exercise

Rewrite the sentences in two other degrees of comparison.

1. Very few boys are as *intelligent* as Sudhir.
2. No other fruit is as *tasty* as the mango.
3. Watching TV is the *most popular* pastime these days.
4. This is the *smallest* organism.
5. Your greeting card is *bigger* than all others I received for my birthday.

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